DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 132 133 SP 010 665

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TITLE Can Inservice Value Clarification Training Contribute to Openness of Teacher Assessing Behavior?
PUB DATE 75
NOTE 20p.
AVAILABLE FROM George L. Redman, Hamline University, St. Paul, Minnesota 55104 ($1.00)

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.83 Plus Postage. HC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS Catholic Schools; *Classroom Communication; Classroom Environment; *Inservice Teacher Education; Interaction; *Personal Values; Student Interests; Student Needs; *Student Teacher Relationship; *Teacher Attitudes; Teacher Behavior; Teacher Response
IDENTIFIERS Openmindedness; *Values Clarification; Values Education

ABSTRACT

To determine whether inservice value clarification training is related to the degree of openness expressed by teachers, three hypotheses were tested. This report focuses on one of these hypotheses--that when asked to assess in writing an event that allowed for a variety of points of view, inservice teachers after value clarification training would signal more concern for the needs and interests of students than before training and would signal less concern for the needs and interests of authority figures in the classroom and school settings. The subjects were inservice administrators and/or teachers in grades K-8 in small Roman Catholic, parochial schools. Value clarification training consisted of numerous activities presented in six three-hour sessions and one six-hour session over the course of seven weeks. Before and after training, subjects were asked to observe and assess classroom events portrayed in a nine-minute film. The film was selected because of its ability to stimulate a variety of viewer responses. It depicted teacher interaction with groups of students and one-to-one interaction between the teacher and individual students. The major finding of the study was that the percentage of assessment statements showing concern for the students as individuals was significantly higher after the value clarification training program. (MM)

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# Can Inservice Value Clarification Training Contribute to Openness of Teacher Assessing Behavior?

The intent of this article is to report a study on the relationship between inservice value clarification training and the degree of openness communicated by teachers in written statements of assessment (Redman, 1975). Since the major findings of the study were related to one of three hypotheses tested, the focus of this article is on the theoretical background, method, findings, conclusions, and recommendations related primarily to that one hypothesis.

## Background of the Study

With the evolution of a more pluralistic society, the need to examine ways in which schools and teachers can openly relate to individuals and groups with diverse values has become particularly great. One approach to the development of more open communication patterns was developed and labeled values (or value) clarification by Raths, Harmin and Simon (1966). These authors asserted that "openness of communication" is one result which is likely to emerge from value clarification (Raths, et al., 1966, p. 227). The same authors also cited a study by Weintraub in which it was found that students experiencing the value clarification methodology scored significantly higher (at .01 level) on one measure of openness--"listens to and shows respect for the ideas and experiences of others" (Raths, et al., 1966).

It has been said that "values education is currently one of the most exciting and explosive new developments in education" and that there has been in the last several years "a spectacular upsurge of interest in and emphasis on 'values' and 'valuing' in education." Moreover, value clarification has been characterized as one of the "most widespread and controversial approaches to values education" which has been developed (Superka, 1974).

SP010 665



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In light of (1) the need for fostering openness among individuals and groups in an increasingly pluralistic society and (2) the prominence of value clarification training on the current educational scene, this writer felt it imperative to investigate the claim that value clarification could contribute to openness of communication.

## Theoretical Framework

The basic hypothesis of the value clarification theory was that:

1. Our society does not always present conditions that permit children to effectively develop control over one's own existence;

2. Persons who do not develop this control over their lives will often relate to their surroundings via certain behavior patterns--apathy, flightiness, indecisiveness, drift, over-dissension, over-conformity, role-playing, or inconsistency; and

3. When persons who have not had adequate opportunity to clarify relationships between themselves and their surroundings discover such opportunities, they will often use them to assert more rational control over their existences. (Raths, et al., 1966, p. 219)

Seven characteristics of a valuing process were suggested: choosing freely, choosing from alternatives, choosing after careful consideration of consequences, prizing (being glad about value choices), publicly affirming value choices, acting on the value, and acting on the value repeatedly over time. The authors asserted that only when all seven characteristics are included in a process could some preference be considered a value. From these seven characteristics, Raths and colleagues developed questioning skills and classroom strategies which teachers could use to help pupils clarify their values. The developers hypothesized that use of such value clarification skills and strategies would enable pupils to become more positive, purposeful, and proud.

## Related Research

Research designed to investigate various effects of value clarification training on inservice teachers has yielded inconclusive results. Studies

by Brown (n.d.), Gagnon (1965), and Crellin (1968) on the effects of this approach tentatively supported the notion that such training could increase teacher knowledge about and competence in applying value clarification skills and strategies. Gagnon's study suggested also that improvement in value questioning skills promoted more critical thinking on the part of the students. However, King (1974) concluded that a one-exposure (half-day) workshop format was insufficient for teaching subjects to employ value-clarifying questions in their classrooms, and Clark (1972) found no significant differences in teacher self-concept as a result of a ten-week inservice program.

While such research offered only tentative support for some of the hypotheses emanating from the value clarification theory, the claim by Raths, et al., (1966) that value clarification fostered open communication was enthusiastically received by many. It was within this context that questions arose which stimulated the development of the study reported here. Examples of such questions included:

1. How can the concept "openness of communication" be translated into operational definitions which can be measured?

2. Is there any empirical evidence which supports the claim that clarification training fosters openness?

3. What kinds of measurement instruments and/or techniques hold the greatest potential for assessing the effects of value clarification training?

4. Would findings of unobtrusive measures support teacher self-reports that value clarification training enhances: (1) sensitivity to the uniqueness of personally-held values, and (2) openness or receptivity to the needs and interests of students as unique individuals?

Prior to the 1960's and the formulation of the value clarification theory, educational researchers had investigated dimensions of classroom climate. H. H. Anderson (1939) based his scheme on a continuum which placed "student-orientation" on one end and "teacher-orientation" on the other.[1] Withall's

[1]Subsequent studies suggested that "student orientation" was positively related to greater pupil initiative, participation, and involvement in problem-solving (Anderson & Brewer, 1946, Anderson, Brewer, and Reed, 1946).

system (Withall, 1949, p. 349) for classifying teacher verbal behavior as indicators of classroom climate ranged from "learner-supportive" statements to "teacher-supportive" statements, with a "neutral" range midway between. It was such research and development which suggested to this writer that one operational indicator of openness could well be the degree to which teachers signal "concern for (identification with and/or support of) student needs and interests rather than those of authority figures."

Hypotheses of the Study

To determine whether inservice value clarification training was related to the degree of openness expressed by teachers in and through written statements of assessment, three hypotheses were tested. The focus of this treatise is on one of these hypotheses—the hypothesis that: when asked to assess (describe or evaluate) in writing an event which allowed for a variety of points of view, inservice teachers after value clarification training would to a greater degree than before such training signal concern for (identification with and/or support of) the needs and interests of students as individuals and less concern for the needs and interests of authority figures in classroom and school settings.

Within this hypothesis are several key terms which were assigned particular meanings. The term value was defined as those life-guiding preferences (for what is good, worthwhile, and/or beautiful) which are chosen freely, prized, and acted upon by an individual or group (Raths, et al., 1966). The term value clarification was used to denote a process through which one rationally and openly examines and clarifies cognitive, affective, and behavioral aspects of value choices emphasizing the seven characteristics of the valuing process as defined (Raths, et al., 1966). Value clarification

training referred to the teaching of value clarification theory and methodology developed by Raths, et al., (1966).

The terms to assess behavior referred to the process of describing and/or evaluating behavior. Wehlage and Anderson (1972) asserted that assessments with descriptive meanings express factual assertions about real objects or events (e.g., behavior) and that statements with valuative meanings express assertions about one's preference for real objects or events. The factual statement, "the teacher smiled when she talked," describes a behavior. In the valuative statement, "it was good that she smiled at that time," a preference is shown for the behavior of smiling. Valuative statements employ the use of a rating term such as "good-bad," "right-wrong," "beautiful-ugly," to signal an evaluation. Two characteristics essential to the notion of a valuative message are: "(1) a rating word must be useful or implied, and (2) the entire construction must function to express a preference" (Wehlage and Anderson, 1972).

This writer felt that if the hypothesis of the study were upheld, it would support value clarification as an approach to fostering more open communication. If the hypothesis were not upheld, it would suggest that the effects of value clarification training proposed in this study may not necessarily be real effects which could be expected from such training, at least not in this or similar situations.

## Method

### Research Design

To test the hypothesis, a design was selected which was appropriate for purposes of this study and at the same time did not violate purposes of a larger parent research project comparing four models for human relations

training.[2] The design is illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1

General Design of the Study

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Group 1 | Pretest | Treatment | Posttest | |
| Group 2 | | | Pretest | Treatment Posttest |

The treatment for each of the comparison groups consisted of a 7 week (24 hour) inservice value clarification training program.

Description of Sample

The subjects in both Group 1 and Group 2 were inservice teachers and/or administrators of grades K-8 in small Roman Catholic parochial schools. Subjects in Group 1 were employed in the Minneapolis-St. Paul metropolitan area of over 1,000,000 inhabitants, while Group 2 subjects were employed in three rural area towns of less than 5,000 inhabitants.

The age range in both groups was from 21 years to 60 years, with over 40% of each group being between the ages of 20 and 30. Both groups were composed of approximately 90% female subjects. Approximately 85% of subjects in each group had taught between 1 and 5 years. Approximately 60% of subjects in each group were employed at the elementary (K-6) level with the remainder teaching in grades seven and eight. Over 60% of the subjects in each group had no previous formal human relations training.[3]

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[2] Paulson, Wayne, and Charles Bruning. "A Comparative Study of Four Human Relations Models," University of Minnesota, 1972.

[3] More complete tables which compare descriptive characteristics of subjects in the two groups with regard to sex, age, total school (working) experience, highest degree, present position, subject(s) taught and grade level taught are presented in: Redman, George, "An Exploratory Study of the Effects of Inservice Value Clarification Training on Openness of Teacher Assessing Behavior," unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1975.

Sampling Procedure

The subjects of the study had initially volunteered to participate in a larger federally-funded project called "Comparison of Four Human Relations Models" for which they received three University credits.[4] After agreeing to participate in the larger project, two of the groups selected the value clarification model as that in which they desired to receive training. Teachers in these two groups then became the subjects for the study reported here. Each group comprised approximately 60% of the total faculty in its home school.

Nature and Scope of the Treatment

The training program was designed to help subjects to: (a) comprehend the position of proponents of value clarification regarding aspects of the value clarification model such as the need for the model, the goals, and means, its theoretical constructs, assumptions, and the supporting research; (b) comprehend potential desirable, and undesirable, instructional and nurturant effects of implementing value clarification skills and strategies in classrooms, schools, and communities; (c) apply value clarification strategies in helping others clarify value issues; (d) synthesize value clarification strategies relevant for one's classroom, school, and community; and (e) assess the potential of value clarification skills and strategies for own personal and progessional use. Sessions were experiential in nature so that participants could practice skills and strategies. Numerous activities based on value clarification classroom strategies and on the general clarifying response were employed.[5]

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[4] Subjects selected the value clarification model from: (1) Value Clarification, (2) Power/Powerlessness, (3) Human Development Training, and (4) Teacher Effectiveness Training.

[5] An in-depth description of the treatment model, based on concepts for analyzing and describing teaching models developed by Joyce and Weil (1972) is included in Redman (1975).

The training program consisted of seven sessions, six of which were 3 clock hours in length and one of which was 6 clock hours in length, for a total of 24 clock hours. The seven sessions were spaced at 1 week intervals so that subjects would have the opportunity to apply the acquired skills to their own classroom teaching. The writer was the trainer for Group 1. A colleague with whom this investigator has worked for several years was the trainer for Group 2.

The Measurement Technique Employed

In response to assertions by Raths, et al., (1966) that (1) "paper and pencil tests which obtain 'what persons say they value' fall short in usefulness for value clarification research," and (2) "the possibilities of...projective techniques...need further exploration," an unobtrusive projective procedure was developed specifically for the study. The procedure included:

1. having subjects view a film portraying classroom interaction that focused primarily on a conference between one student and a teacher,
2. having subjects assess (describe or evaluate) in writing the performance of the teacher in the film, and
3. classifying the written statements of assessment that expressed concern for needs and interests of various persons in the film.

In other words, subjects were asked to observe and assess classroom events portrayed in a nine-minute film.[6] The film employed as the stimulus for eliciting subject statements of assessment was selected because of its ability to stimulate a variety of viewer responses. The film portrayed some teacher interaction with the class and some one-to-one interaction between the teacher and individual students. In a conference with a particular student, the teacher was portrayed as encouraging the student to respond more

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[6]The film, entitled "I Walk Away in the Rain," was part of the Critical Moments in Teaching Series of Holt, Reinhart, and Winston.

thoroughly and actively to school assignments. The points of view represented in subject assessments centered around two bipolar positions: (1) teachers should maximize student attainment of teacher-determined goals, and (2) teachers should maximize efforts to elicit, accept, and facilitate the achievement of student-determined goals.

After the teachers viewed the film the following statement was written on the blackboard: "Please assess (describe and/or evaluate) Mrs. Lewis' (the teacher) behavior in the film." Subjects were given 5 minutes to respond in writing to the statement. The same film and instructions were administered before and after the 7-week program.

The constructs for classifying written statements of assessment were derived from the foundations of value clarification theory as supported by related literature. The classification system used to classify the subjects' written statements of assessment included the following category and sub-categories:

I. Messages signaling concern for (i.e., identification with and/or support of) interests and/or needs of specified persons were classified as expressing:

   A. Concern for an individual student,

   B. Concern for students as a group,

   C. Concern for the teacher or other authority figure in the school,

   D. Concern for both the teacher and student(s).

Statements of assessment which did not express concern for any of the characters portrayed in the film were classified as "not applicable".

Messages that expressed concern for a specified referent in the film (i.e., the teacher, student, or students) were classified as signaling

concern for that referent if (1) the referent was the subject of the statement and if a positive valence was expressed by the statement, or (2) if another person was the subject of the sentence and a negative valence was expressed toward that person because that person's behavior had a deleterious effect on the referent. An example of a statement classifiable according to the first criterion is, "Tom had some good ideas of his own." Here Tom (the referent) is the subject of the statement and a positive valence is expressed by the statement. An example of a statement which meets the second criterion is, "Mrs. Lewis should have clarified Tom's values." In this example, the subject of the sentence is Mrs. Lewis and a negative valence is directed toward her because of a deleterious effect her behavior may have had on Tom (the referent). Both examples would hence be classified as showing concern for (identification with and/or support of) the needs and interests of the student (Tom) as an individual.[7]

Procedure for Scoring Data

Several steps were taken to prepare the written assessments for classification by a panel of three judges. First, measures were taken to insure that judges could not identify whether a given set of statements was a pre- or post-assessment or from a participant in Group 1 or Group 2.

Next, the writer enclosed in parentheses each statement to be classified. The statement so enclosed was in most instances a sentence; however, groups of words representing a complete thought were also identified and marked as statements to be classified. There were 76 sets of statements to be classified--19 pre- and 19 post- from each of the two groups. Each judge was

[7] A complete list of criteria for scoring concern statements is included in Redman (1975).

randomly assigned a common set of 13 randomly selected sets of statements for the purpose of computing interrater reliability. Each judge was also assigned 12 unique sets of statements. Judges 1, 2, and 3 classified 172, 175, and 194 statements, respectively. The 71 statements comprising the 13 sets common to all three judges were included only in the final tally for Judge 1 so that those 71 statements would not receive triple weighting.

After the statements had been classified they were tallied by group and treatment. Raw scores were converted to percentages so that a set of statements containing a larger number of statements expressing concern for a particular person in the film would not receive a heavier weighting than one with fewer statements. The percentage scores were used in testing the significance of the hypothesis.

Interrater Reliability

In order to reduce bias possibly arising from the interpretive classification of statements, two judges in addition to this investigator independently classified the statements of assessment related to the hypothesis. The judges were selected on the basis of the following criteria: (1) possession of in-depth knowledge of the philosophy and methodology of value clarification, and (2) possession of ability to make linguistic distinctions necessary for an analyzing data. Mean coefficients of agreement (Scott, 1955) among judges was .91.

Analysis of the Data

In order to test the significance of more than one variable, a 2x2 repeated measure factorial design was employed. The independent variables tested were those of (1) group, (2) treatment, and (3) interaction effects between group and treatment. Dependent variables were categories of the

measurement scheme designed to test the hypothesis of the study--categories which measured subject concern for needs and interests of persons in the film. The key comparison was between combined Group 1 and Group 2 pretest and posttest scores.

## Findings

### Related to the Hypotheses of the Study

The major finding of the study was that the percentage of statements showing concern for the student as an individual was significantly higher (at the .05 level of probability after the treatment). Indeed, as illustrated in Table 1, the post treatment mean (.572) was more than twice as large as that held prior to the treatment (.260). There was a concomitant significant decrease related to treatment in percentage of statements by subjects showing concern for the teacher and for students as a group.[8]

Table 1

Cell Means of Groups and Treatments, Based on Concern Categories (Expressed in Percentage of Statements Showing Concern)

| | Group | | | Treatment | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Concern Category | 1 | 2 | F | Pre | Post | F |
| Student as Individual | .325 | .506 | 2.66 | .260 | .572 | 291.40* |
| Teacher | .543 | .346 | 3.23 | .543 | .346 | 77.33* |
| Students as Group | .100 | .125 | 1.00 | .171 | .053 | 30.00* |
| Both Teacher & Student(s) | .008 | .010 | <1.00 | .010 | .008 | <1.00 |
| Not Applicable | .025 | .015 | <1.00 | .015 | .025 | <1.00 |

Note: See Appendix E-1 through E-5 of the thesis for analysis of variance tables and details of calculating F ratios (Redman, 1975).
*p. < .05

[8] The decrease in statements expressing concern for teacher and students as a group was due to the fact that this portion of the category system is a closed system (i.e., as the percentage of one category rises, one or more other categories must fall since the total constitutes 100 percent).

There were no significant effects of interaction between group and treatment.

A somewhat clearer picture of changes which occurred is presented graphically in Figures 2 and 3.

Figure 2

Combined Group 1 and Group 2 Means of Percentage of Statements Expressing Concern for the Students as an Individual

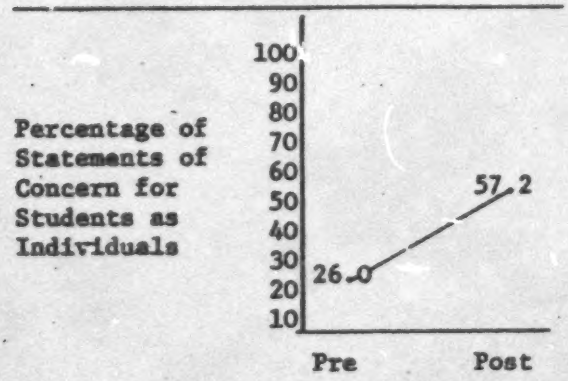
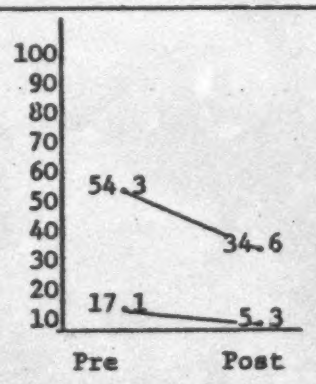



Figure 3

Combined Group 1 and Group 2 Means of Percentage of Statements Expressing Concern for the Teacher and for Students as a Group




As illustrated in Figure 2, the combined group means of the percentage of statements expressing concern for the students as an individual rose from a pre-treatment level of 26.0% to a post-treatment level of 57.2%. Figure 3 illustrates the pre-post trend for combined groups in percentage of statements showing concern for needs and interests of the teacher in the film (54.3-34.6%) and those expressing concern for needs and interests of students as a group (17.1-5.3%).

There were two other hypotheses tested in the study reported here. These two hypotheses were that when asked to assess in writing an event which allowed for a variety of points of view, inservice teachers after value clarification training would to a greater degree than before such training:

1. indirectly signal cognizance of the degree to which a message is considered by the sender as subjectively held by identifying persons who:

   a. hold a point of view represented in their message, and/or

   b. hold a point of view other than that represented in their message;

2. directly signal acceptance of the subjectivity of a personal assessment by employing a qualifying phrase which supports:

   a. the right of others to hold different points of view based on their personal value system, and/or;

   b. other persons who hold different points of view based on their personal value systems.

The number of indirect and direct qualifying phrases which signaled the degree to which a statement of assessment was considered to be subjectively held was too low to meaningfully apply any test of significance. Hence, discussion of procedures related to the testing of same hypotheses has been omitted from this treatise. Those interested in that discussion are referred to Redman (1975).

Other Findings

Several ancillary questions arose during the development of this study. One question addressed the issue of whether a training program in value clarification would encourage inservice teachers to become more descriptive or valuative (if given the choice) when assessing an event involving classroom interaction. Findings indicated that subjects in the two groups combined employed 31.0% valuative statements (N=255) before and 34.5% valuative statements (N=271) after the treatment.

A second question sought to determine whether valuative clarification training would encourage inservice teachers to refer to covert or overt behaviors in their written assessments. Group 1 and 2 combined described or

evaluated overt behavior in 44% of their written statements before (N=260) and 52% after the treatment (N=262).

A third question was whether teachers with value clarification training would more often employ terminology characteristic of value clarification theory and methodology in written assessments. The subjects employed such terminology in 45% of their valuative statements before the treatment (N=78) and in 64% after the treatment (N=83).

## Conclusions

### Related to Hypotheses of this Study

The chief finding of the study demonstrated that a relationship existed between a period of value clarification training and the participating teachers' increased concern for the needs and interests of individual students. A causal relationship could hardly be attirubted to this phenomenon in light of the design of the study and number of participants involved but that fact that this mean difference before and after such training was significant at the .05 level of probability suggested that a relationship did exist between training and concern for individual students as expressed in and through written statements of assessment.

### Related to Ancillary Questions

Some trends in data related to ancillary questions arising during the study, which, though not statistically significant, were toward increased subject use of:

1. valuative statements
2. statements referring to overt behavior, and
3. terms and phrases consistent with those of the value clarification approach.

One possible interpretation is that the value clarification training program employed in this study was at least somewhat successful in establishing a more open climate in which participants felt free to evaluate, and that participants did learn skills, techniques, and concepts of the value clarification approach.

Related to the Measurement Technique

The initial use of a new and relatively untried measurement technique inevitably invites questions about long range validity and reliability. This investigator's conclusions are that the constructs and procedures of the projective technique employed to measure the three hypotheses of this study were both manageable and fruitful for the purposes of this study. The measurement scheme was manageable in that judges who were trained to employ the scheme achieved a mean coefficient of agreement of .91 after only 3 hours of training. The categories were fruitful for behavioralizing the concept of openness and for collecting data for testing the claims that value clarification training fosters openness. The constructs of the measurement scheme seemed to be comprehensive in accounting for elements of the dimensions they were designed to measure. In addition, the measurement system was appropriate to the stimulus material in that it was sensitive to differences in interpretations within a single set of assessments as well as among the sets of assessments.

Limitations of the Study

The study was designed to control for the main effects of maturation, instrumentation, and differential regression. However, the effects of history, equivalent regression, mortality, and interaction (e.g., of selection/history) could have affected the internal validity of the study. External validity could have been affected by selection (i.e., differential volunteering and

lack of random assignment) and/or an interactive effect of testing (Campbell and Stanley, 1969). In addition, since the projective technique was devised for the purposes of this study, its validity and reliability had not previously been verified. Lastly, generalizability of the result of the study is limited to the degree that a single sample of assessing behavior is situational or unique (i.e., not typical of a general style of assessing).

## Recommendations

To more fully accomplish the purpose of this study, additional research is needed. Based on the findings and conclusions of this exploratory study and the review of related research, the following recommendations are made.

This writer recommends that studies be undertaken to: (1) replicate this study using random samples of subjects and employing a greater number and variety of stimuli to obtain instances of subject assessing behavior, (2) investigate the degree to which greater openness in teacher assessing behavior as a result of value clarification training is retained over time (e.g., 6 months, 12 months, and 24 months after completion of value clarification training), (3) investigate the effects of inservice value clarification training on teacher and student verbal assessing behavior, (4) explore the degree to which teachers in their classrooms and schools exhibit indicators of openness such as those defined in this study after receiving value clarification training, (5) investigate the relationship between teacher classroom behaviors indicating openness and changes in pupil achievement and morale, and (6) ascertain more specifically which kinds of experiences within a total value clarification program are responsible for fostering changes in teacher openness (e.g., which strategies and in what sequence would optimum changes in teacher and/or student openness result?) It seems to this writer that such questions must be answered if we are to identify the kind of educational program that effectively fosters openness in teacher and/or student behavior.

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